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ABSTRACT

To determine people's use of media during the 1984 presidential campaign, telephone interviews were conducted with 630 heads of households in Dane County, Wisconsin. It was hypothesized that persons with different political orientations would have significantly different media use and attention patterns. The data analysis proceeded in two stages. The first phase involved factor analyzing the various political media attention and interest questions into a set of summary variables that could be used subsequently in an interactive multiple regression model. The second phase involved designing a hierarchical multiple regression equation to help understand the relative contribution of each independent variable to the prediction of the dependent variable, political knowledge. The results show that a person cognitively engaged with the political system, as expressed in a definite political orientation, is likely to know more about politics and be better equipped to learn more readily from political media. The data also added evidence that attention is an important variable in the process of learning from the mass media, and that political identity in terms of partisan support helps in predicting political knowledge. (HOD)

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The interactive effects of media use and attention: Political knowledge and the Partisan Supporter Typology

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The interactive effects of media use and attention:
Political knowledge and the Partisan Supporter Typology

The reasons an individual attends to news and public affairs information have long been considered crucial pieces of the media effects puzzle. This logic, either explicitly stated or implicitly understood, underlies many recent models of mass media effects. (See, for example, McQuail, 1985; Rosengren, Wenner and Palmgreen, 1985; Graber, 1984; McLeod and Becker, 1981; and Weaver, 1977; for some models focusing on the motives of audience members.) This seems particularly important in the case of political communication. For some persons, political communication is helpful in the formation of partisan arguments. For others, much less conscious motivation is present -- exposure may be a matter of an unplanned encounter with a newsbrief during a prime time soap opera or film. Still others will seek political news for its own sake or for help in making sense of the political scene generally.

Information and political schemata

One of the most important clues about how a person uses the mass media for political information ought to be one's cognitive engagement with the political system. There can be no doubt that this engagement, expressed as whether one is an independent or a supporter of a political party, is a key factor in understanding voter decisionmaking. Information about candidates, campaigns and issues is also associated with political decisionmaking. We are particularly interested here in the interplay between one's

general cognitive orientation to the political system and the use of political communication in the mass media.

By this phrase "general cognitive orientation to the political system" we mean much more than partisanship in the usual sense of party identification. First, there is the usual meaning of partisanship, personal identification with one or the other major party. Second, one may be independent of major political parties generally or even unattached to the party system completely. Finally, one can take a middle position, generally recognizing some party affiliation, but reserving the right to disagree with party members over matters of policy.

We devote attention to the phenomenon of independence because it is an important characteristic of the contemporary political era (Dennis, 1981, 1983; Kamieniecki, 1985; Nie, Verba and Petrocik, 1979; DeVries and Tarrance, 1972). Furthermore, as Lau (1986:124) has stated, evidence:

> "...leads to the clear prediction that over the next 20 years the size of the electorate cognitively ready to process and respond to issue appeals from candidates will become increasingly large, whereas the size of the electorate responding to party cues will shrink."

Party identification in the traditional political science literature is usually thought of as a "long-term psychological attachment" to a political party that begins at an early age and becomes stronger over time. Partisanship is normally discussed as a set of attitudes or beliefs that form the nucleus of one's basic political predispositions. It is helpful to know one's partisan orientation because we expect it to be correlated with

many other political variables such as time of voting decision, political ideology, issue stands, political involvement and a myriad of other concepts.

Political independence, in contrast, is less well understood. Knowing simply that a person is independent may give us little aid in understanding this person's political preferences. An independent may be a person who cares almost nothing about politics and knows even less. On the other hand, some people who are very knowledgeable about politics and who have extremely well-developed political preferences also describe themselves as politically independent. What is needed is a conceptual framework to organize thinking about political independence and its relationship to traditional notions of partisanship.

Political identity

During the late 1970s many political scientists became embroiled in a fierce struggle over the nature of party identification. The concept, a major contribution to the modern study of voting and elections, is the cornerstone of the model of voting developed through the use of national voting studies at The University of Michigan. In this conceptualization of party identification, people are ordered on a seven-point scale that ranges from strong Republican to strong Democrat. The midpoint of the scale, independent, is simply assumed to be a neutral partisan.

This assumption, along with several others about the nature of partisanship and independence and their relationship to each other, has been argued extensively in the political science literature and we will not repeat that story here.[1] It is clear, however, that the traditional conceptualization and measurement of independence is given short shrift by the standard seven-point party identification measure. This can be seen as representing a particular problem for political communication researchers, who are primarily concerned with understanding prople's use of media in election campaign settings. After all, there have been suggestions since the earliest empirical voting studies that political information is differentially acquired and used by partisans and independents (Chaffee and Hochheimer, 1985; Chaffee and Choe, 1980; Flanigan and Zingale, 1983; Cohen, 1975; DeVries and Tarrance, 1972).

Political partisanship can be viewed in many ways, among them as an "efficient schematic device in the organization of beliefs, evaluations and feelings toward the political world" (Fiske and Kinder, 1981:180).[2] Our view is similar, but we would like to extend it somewhat. We use the term "political identity" to indicate a general construct encompassing both partisanship and independence.

The borrowing of the term "schemata" from cognitive psychology builds upon recent work in political and social psychology attempting to apply principles of cognitive pschology to political behavior in field settings. See especially Sears and

Citrin (1985), Kinder and Sears (1985) and generally Lau and Sears (1986:3-8), and Markus and Zajonc (1985) for more on this perspective.

The construct "political identity" subsumes both independence from and attachment to political parties by treating the concepts of independence and partisanship as fundamentally independent.[3] We will now discuss the resulting four, unordered, discrete values of political identity and the relationship of each to the political system:

1. The Regular Partisans include both Democratic and Republican party identifiers. These people tend to have strong party-based views of the political world, and party cues are valuable to them in selecting, processing and utilizing information. Strong partisans use party cues most in their vote decisions. Note that this is similar to using a "folded" measure of party identification (Campbell, Converse, Miller and Stokes, (1960:123) and selecting only those who are strong partisan identifiers. Partisanship, when discussed in terms of voter information, is usually discussed as an information shortcut -- a way to lessen one's information requirements relative to the voting decision (Popkin, Gorman, Phillips and Smith, 1976:789).

2. The Unattached are those individuals who generally care little about party politics, or perhaps any kind of politics. They see little relevance of party identification, so little in fact, that the idea of "being independent of a political party" likewise makes little sense. These people are, on the whole,

politically uninterested, politically inactive, and consume little political media content.

3. The Regular Independents include those individuals who are generally interested in politics, somewhat knowledgeable, and for whom party-based judgments are de-emphasized. For whatever reasons, these voters do not relate to parties well, but remain in the system and are likely to be involved and voting. This category perhaps conforms most closely to our standard civics textbook account of independents as interested, aware voters who simply reject the notion of operating through parties.

4. Independent Partisans are those who have a keen interest in politics. We expect them to be the most knowledgeable persons in the electorate, to be most politically involved and to routinely use the news media more than other groups. Their independence from party comes not from their rejection of parties as a way of relating to the political system, but from their specific policy disagreements. For example, they may be traditionally strong Democrats who are attracted to the party for its economic policies but repelled by some controversial social policies.

Research questions

Previous work has indicated that the groups identified by the Partisan Supporter Typology differ among themselves in knowledge holding, media use patterns, and some demographic measures (Dennis, 1981; Kosicki, 1985). An unaddressed question is what unique effects these general political orientations have

on political knowledge holding. If political identity is an indicator of a kind of schematic structure that helps organize and integrate new information, we should expect the political identity measures, as main effects, to make significant positive contributions above demographics, political interest, and media use.

Following the general orientation of many recent media effects studies, we expect media use to interact with political identity to affect political learning and subsequent knowledge holding (Kraus and Davis, 1976; McLeod and Reeves, 1980). Thus, we expect political media use to operate differently across the four levels of political identity to significantly affect the resulting levels of political knowledge holding. Again, a general hypothesis would be that well-developed political schemata such as that displayed by partisans, will interact with incoming information to facilitate increased learning.

Methods: sample

This study reports data gathered by the Mass Communications Research Center at the University of Wisconsin-Madison in fall 1984 based on a cross-sectional sample survey of adults in Dane County, Wisconsin. The sample was a stratified proportionate probability sample of the residential telephone exchanges in the county. The interviewing was done by advanced undergraduate and graduate students as part of the requirements for a research methods class. The interviewing took place during the last two weeks of October 1984.

The study was primarily designed to study people's use of media during the presidential campaign. The interviews were conducted with either the male or female head of household and took an average of 45 minutes to complete.

Methods: measurement

Measurement of political identity follows the Partisan Supporter Typology series.[4] (See Dennis, 1981; Eulau, 1985; Kamieniecki, 1985; and Weisberg, 1980, 1983; for discussions of this measurement strategy.) Listed in the Appendix are the questions for other dependent and independent variables, along with their estimated Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients, where appropriate.

Methods: Principal components analysis

The main analysis proceeded in two stages. The first phase involved factor analyzing the various political media attention and interest questions into a parsimonious set of summary variables that could be used subsequently in an interactive multiple regression model. We expected the input variables to factor into two groups: use of politically oriented news media content, and motivations of interest and attention to political media.

Table 1 about here

Principal components analysis was used with both varimax and oblique rotations. We ultimately selected the two-factor solution

shown in Table 1 with oblique rotation that allows the two resulting factors to be correlated with each other at about .34. This means they share almost 12 percent of their variance in common. The advantage of this solution is that it conservatively makes no assumption of independence between the two resulting factors. The solution also more closely conforms to the factor analytic ideal of simple structure. Overall, the solution fits the set of input variables rather well, with 60.9 percent of the variance in the original set of input variables accounted for by the two factors.

The factor pattern matrix is interpretable as the composition of the factors and is conceptually similar to path coefficients from the input variables to the factors themselves. An examination of this pattern matrix reveals that the strongest items are attention to the presidential campaign in the newspapers and on television, and political and campaign interest. The factors themselves are readily interpretable. Factor I represents interest in and attention to political media. Factor II is television and newspaper public affairs use.

The factor structure matrix, which represents the Pearson correlations from the input variables to the factors, tells us the amount each input variable is associated with each factor. Factor scores were saved for this solution for use in subsequent analyses. Because they were obtained through principal components analysis, the factor scores saved were exact, not estimated.

Methods: multiple regression

The second phase of the analysis involved designing a hierarchical multiple regression equation to help understand the relative contribution of each independent variable to the prediction of the dependent variable, political knowledge. Hierarchical regression enters independent variables in the order specified by the analyst. Interaction terms were calculated by multiplying the dummy variables representing political identity with the interest-attention, and public affairs content factor scores discussed above.

The purpose of the analysis is to test for the main and interactive effects of political identity, after appropriate controls for demographic variables such as age and socioeconomic status known to be associated with political knowledge. The goal is not maximization of the total variance explained. A significant interaction in such an analysis would provide evidence that the group in question differs significantly from the others, after controls, in its use of media (Wright, 1984). Partial correlation coefficients will be reported instead of beta weights for two reasons: Their values are very similar to the betas in most cases, and they facilitate comparison with the accompanying zero-order Pearson correlations.

Results

Zero-order intercorrelations among the variables to be included in the analysis appear in Table 2. These are included for completeness. Means and standard deviations for the

individual items are included in Table 3. Note that the regression equations were computed on a total of 630 cases.

Table 2 about here

The regression model shown in Table 3 indicates support for the hypothesis that political identity exerts influence on what is learned from media both as a main effect and as interactions with public affairs media use. The model itself was specified in five steps, together producing a reasonably good fit to the sample data. The complete model accounted for 36.5 percent of the variance in political knowledge.

Table 3 about here

The first step, demographics, included both age and socioeonomic status, a combination of education and income. This produced a significant partial r of .26 (R-square=15.1).

Mere frequency of exposure to newspapers and television were both significant, although in different directions. Newspaper frequency, or days read, was related at .13, while television exposure, number of hours of television watched after 6 p.m., was related at -.11. These results are basically consistent with previous findings in that those with high scores on the TV time variable are likely watching large amounts of entertainment television.

The interest-attention and media content factors were both significant, with partials of .13 and .21 respectively. The two factors together accounted for 8.27 percent of the variance in political knowledge.

Adding the political identity variables at this stage of the equation represented a rather stringent test of their ability to make an independent contribution. However, each of the groups did have a significant partial, the largest being the Independent Partisans with .29. Being a Regular Independent contributed a comparable partial of .26, and the Partisan had a partial of .13. Note that these weights represent deviations from what we expected to be the lowest category, the Unattached, who were selected as the reference group not represented in the system of dummy variables. Together, the groups contribute a total R-square of 7.03.

It is interesting to note that each of the partial correlations was larger than the zero-order correlation, particularly for the partisans and independents, which increased from -.02 to .13 and .11 to .26 respectively. This is no doubt due to the nature of the analysis. In the simple correlations, each group was compared to the aggregate of all the others. In the regression analysis, each group was compared to the reference group (the unattached), controlling for the others. The regression analysis would thus provide the clearest picture of the group differences.

The final set of variables considered in this analysis was the interactions of political identity and the interest-attention and political media content factors. The set of all six product terms was significant, lending support to the hypothesis that media use interacts with political identity to produce differential effects on knowledge holding. The set of six interactions explains a small, but statistically significant 1.94 percent of the variance in political knowledge.

Interpretation of the individual partials for the interaction terms is more problematic. As discussed earlier, one would generally expect the individuals with the most well-developed political schemata to be able to to best integrate new information from media and so enhance learning from media content, all other things being equal. However, both significant partials for interaction terms are negative, a fact that makes straightforward interpretation difficult. Furthermore, two more of the remaining four interaction terms have negative partials, although they are not significant.

To help clarify these somewhat puzzling interaction terms, we conducted two sets of supplemental analyses. The first examined both the relationships of the interest-attention and media content factors to political knowledge using orthogonal polynomials.[5] The second examined the relationship of each factor to political knowledge separately by political orientation.

To test for potential non-linearity in each of the factors as related to political knowledge, we divided each of the factors

into roughly equivalent quintiles and submitted each factor to orthogonal polynomial analysis. The results are graphed in Figure 2. The media content factor shows essentially a distinct positive linear trend. The interest-attention factor, however, indicated a significant departure from linearity. In fact, the trend analysis revealed a significant cubic relationship ($p < .05$) in addition to the overall positive linear trend. Visual examination of Figure 2 indicated that some interest and attention is associated with higher levels of knowledge compared with no interest and attention. However, the relationship takes a significant dip in the mid-range before continuing the upward linear trend. This finding helps clarify the relatively poor performance of the interest-attention factor in the regression analysis, since regression attempts to fit a straight line to this relationship. A conservative interpretation of this result is that high and low levels of attention are significantly related to political knowledge holding in the expected positive direction. The monotonic relationship does not hold in the middle range of interest and attention and may even decline slightly.

There are several possible explanations for this finding. One is that the amount of attention one reports paying to political media may be a relative matter and so respondents interpreted our scales somewhat differently according to their level of knowledge. Another possibility is social-acceptability bias or response set operating in the measurement of political interest and media attention. That is, low-knowledge respondents

might overstate their interest in politics or attention to public affairs media. In analyses not shown it is apparent that this cubic relationship seems to be strongest for the partisans and does not operate at all for the unattached. The unattached would presumably feel little to no social pressure to overstate their interest in politics, while the partisans would feel the most.

Another plausible, and perhaps better, explanation for such an effect could be that the partisans, who are largely responsible for this effect, simply pay attention to qualitatively different kinds of information not measured as part of our dependent variable and so at the average level simply do not do as well as other groups. If partisanship is an information shortcut as Popkin et al. (1976) suggest, partisans may be learning different things from the media to which they attend. Related to this idea is the possibility that partisans pay attention to issue information about the candidate of their <u>own</u> party, and do not explicitly recall the exact position of the opponent. This view is consistent with findings of Cohen (1975), who reported that independent voters were more likely to pay attention to information about candidates of both parties than were partisans. If this process is at work, we would be able to test this in a subsequent analysis. One clue would be provided if the various types of knowledge subsumed in our dependent variable represented more than a single factor. But a carefully designed inquiry incorporating such disaggregation and providing appropriate tests is beyond the scope of this paper.

Because the available evidence does not allow us to make a clear determination of the merits of each of these positions, we must suspend judgment on this matter for now. An important task will be to replicate the effect in other work and study it more intensely. This would potentially include disaggregating the knowledge measure as well as looking separately at the interest and attention measures, and perhaps attention measures specific to particular media.

Our second set of supplemental analyses examined these relationships separately for each political orientation. The purpose was to clarify the significant negative interactions of the interest-attention factor with independent partisans and partisans. A ceiling effect seems to be operating for the independent partisans in that they begin near the top of the scale and generally remain there no matter what their public affairs content exposure. The regular independents likewise show a flat relationship no matter what their levels of exposure. The regular partisans show an increased level of knowledge associated with generally monotonic increases in public affairs content. This relationship is somewhat similar to that of the Unattached, who have an asymptotic relationship. Note that when comparing the relationships of the independent partisans and regular indepedents to the other groups, the slope is linear and positive for only the partisans. The significant interaction terms for the independent partisans and the regular independents thus seems due to their deviance from this flat slope, a situation that seems to

account for the negative interaction terms. This is also consistent with our expectations that those with the most well-developed political schema, that is, the partisans, tend to learn the most from political media. The independent partisans would seem to be in a position to learn much more, given that they already tend to know the most. However, their absolute levels of knowledge are so high that they could suffer from a ceiling effect on the political knowledge variable.

Conclusion

Our objective was to examine the relative impact of political identity on political knowledge. We also sought to test hypotheses that persons with different political orientations would have significantly different media use and attention patterns. Results indicate that political identity is strongly related to knowledge after a variety of controls. The exact magnitude of these differences are not easily grasped from the regression analyses, but are most clearly seen in Figure 3. For example, note that for low levels of public affairs content exposure the difference, expressed in standard scores, between the lowest (the Unattached, -.66) and the highest group (the Independent Partisans, +.63) is 1.29. This set of main effects helps answer one of our research questions in that the various values of political identity we defined can be seen as types of political schemata that serve to enhance learning from political media. If one is cognitively engaged with the political system as expressed in a definite political orientation, it is likely that

one knows more about politics and is better equipped to learn more readily from political media.

Our choice of the Unattached as the reference group was not accidental; we expected them to have the least developed schemata for politics. Thus the others, even independents, would show a positive increase when compared to the level of the Unattached. This finding, even after rather extensive multivariate controls, suggests that having a coherent framework, such as a strong self-identification with a political party, is helpful in enhancing learning. That in itself is nothing new. What is new is that the Partisan Supporter Typology is a useful conceptual and measurement strategy for this purpose.

Conclusions regarding our second research question are less clear. We expected to find interactions among the levels of political identity and the factors of interest-attention and political media use. Only two of the six interactions were significant, and for both of them the direction was negative. The supplemental analysis turned up evidence consistent with an interpretation of ceiling effects for the Independent Partisans. The slope for the partisans is steep enough so that it is significantly different from the average of the other groups. In terms of our model, it seems that using a partisan schema does enhance learning from media content as compared to the Unattached individuals and the two types of independents.

If a ceiling effect is operating, it would be advantageous to expand the range of the dependent variable by devising more

varied types of knowledge measures. Some promising open-ended strategies have been discussed by Lodge (1985) that might be useful in this regard. It would also be helpful to develop a new way to ascertain political interest and attention to political media to minimize the possibility of social desirability bias.

Quite apart from our formal research questions, this analysis has turned up evidence that may be useful to those trying to understand the contribution of media attention and exposure in political learning. Further work is needed to examine the non-linearity of the interest-attention factor. The data presented here add additional evidence in support of attention as an important variable in the process of learning from the mass media (Chaffee and Schleuder, forthcoming). It also suggests that the full contribution of attention may be undervalued by techniques examining only linear relationships. Thus, if the full meaning and form of the attention-knowledge relationship were understood, the role of attention would be certainly larger than mere exposure and potentially larger than specific content exposure.

Finally, we have provided some evidence that political identity as operationalized here in terms of the Partisan Supporter Typology is helpful in predicting political knowledge holding by itself after multivariate controls and in interaction with some media variables. Scientific concepts are neither right nor wrong, but useful or not useful. Our data seem to argue that this concept of political identity, with its focus on considering

various types of independents as well as traditional partisans, may be quite useful to communication researchers. Given the field's longstanding concern with political learning as an outcome of political media (Robinson and Levy, 1986), it may help provide a useful piece of the political media effects puzzle.

Endnotes

1. See Eulau (1985) for an overview of this issue.

2.Lau (1986:114) discusses political schemata as "enduring cognitive structures that influence the processing of political information across multiple election years."

3. See generally, Dennis (1981), Weisberg (1980, 1983), and Valentine and Van Wingen (1980) for discussions of the assumption that independence and patisanship are fundamentally independent concepts.

4.We used two questions from the Partisan Supporter Typology series:
In your own mind, do you think of yourself as a supporter of one of the political parties or not?
Do you ever think of yourself as a political independent, or not?
These two items are crossed to yield a four-fold typology that constitutes the four levels of political identity.

5. See Hays (1981:499-523) for a general discussion of polynomial analysis.

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Appendix

Reliability

Knowledge alpha = .88 (26 items)

Stances on Issues

Reagan:	Mondale:
ERA	**ERA**
Deficit	**Deficit**
Taxes	**Taxes**
Abortion	**Abortion**
School Prayer	**School Prayer**
Nuclear Weapons	**Nuclear Weapons**

Naming:

Senator	**Party**
Senator	**Party**
Representative	**Party**
Representative's Opponent	**Party**

Length of term:

Senator
Representative

Naming:

President of Soviet Union
Capital of Nicaragua
Two countries that border Lebanon

Public Affairs Newspaper alpha = .63 (4 items)

How often do you read (FREQUENTLY, SOMETIMES, RARELY or NEVER):

International News
National Affairs News
Editorials
Local Affairs News

Public Affairs Television alpha = .50 (3 items)

How often do you watch (FREQUENTLY, SOMETIMES, RARELY or NEVER):

National news
Local news
Magazine shows and Documentaries

Attention to Newspapers

When you read the following kinds of stories how much attention do you pay to them (CLOSE ATTENTION, SOME ATTENTION, LITTLE ATTENTION):

National government and Politics
The presidential campaign

Attention to Television

When you see these on televison, how much attention do you pay to them (CLOSE ATTENTION, SOME ATTENTION, LITTLE ATTENTION):

National government and politics
The presidential campaign

Table 1

Principal Component Factor Analysis
Oblique Rotation

	Pattern Matrix		Structure Matrix	
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2
Attention to Presidential Campaign				
Newspapers	.81	-.05	.79	.22
Television	.83	-.13	.79	.16
Attention to National News				
Newspapers	.60	.27	.69	.48
Television	.57	.19	.64	.38
Interest in:				
Politics	.75	.10	.79	.35
Campaign	.85	-.13	.81	.15
Public Affairs Content				
Newspapers	.33	.60	.54	.71
Television	-.10	.88	.20	.84
Eigenvalue	3.87	1.01		
Percentage of Variance	48.3	12.6		

Table 2

Zero-Order Correlations for
Dependent and Independent Variables

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(F1)	(F2)	(A)	(B)	(C)	(Ax1)	(Ax2)	(Bx1)	(Bx2)	(Cx1)
(1) Knowledge	--														
Demographics															
(2) SES	38	--													
(3) Age	06	00	--												
Frequency															
(4) Newspapers	23	15	26	--											
(5) Television	-17	13	10	00	--										
Factors															
(F1)Attention/ Interest	30	22	-03	11	-10	--									
(F2)Media Content	16	03	26	19	03	-33	--								
Political identity															
(A)Ind-Partisans	28	20	08	07	-08	19	04	--							
(B)Partisans	-02	04	08	04	05	10	01	-26	--						
(C)Independents	11	01	-17	-01	-05	-06	01	-35	-39	--					
Interactions															
Ind-Partisansx1	17	19	-06	04	-03	40	-12	40	-10	-14	--				
Ind-Partisansx2	04	00	16	09	05	-11	39	13	-03	-05	-29	--			
Partisansx1	11	07	02	04	-02	46	-12	-05	18	-07	-02	-01	--		
Partisansx2	13	09	12	12	05	-11	47	-01	05	-02	-01	-00	-24	--	
Independentsx1	15	07	-02	00	-04	60	-24	02	02	-05	01	00	00	00	--
Independentsx2	-01	00	13	11	00	-25	59	-02	-02	05	-01	-00	-00	-00	-41

Table 3

Correlation, Partial Correlation and Incremental R2
for Political Knowledge Model, with Means and St. Dev.

	Simple r	Partial r	Means	St. Dev.	N
Demographics					
SES	.38	.26*	1.19	1.12	727
Age	.06	.01	39.11	15.92	727
R2	15.07a				
Frequency					
Newspapers	.23	.13*	5.21	2.29	728
Television	-.17	-.11*	2.42	1.62	737
R2	4.23a				
Factors					
(1)Attention/ Interest	.30	.13*	0.00	1.07	670
(2)Media Content	.15	.21*	0.03	1.06	670
R2	8.27a				
Political identity					
Independent/ Partisans	.28	.29*	0.19	0.39	680
Partisan	-.02	.13*	0.22	0.42	680
Independent	.11	.26*	0.35	0.48	680
R2	7.03a				
Interactions					
Ind-Partx1	.17	-.03	0.07	0.40	671
Ind-Partx2	.04	-.11*	0.02	0.39	671
Partisanx1	.03	.02	0.05	0.47	669
Partisanx2	.13	-.03	0.01	0.47	669
Independentx1	.15	.01	-0.02	0.62	663
Independentx2	-.01	-.14*	0.02	0.60	663
R2	1.94b				
Total R2	36.54%				
Adj. R2	34.79%				

a = $p \leq .01$ b = $p \leq .05$

* = $p \leq .05$ for partial r

Regression N = 660

Figure 1: Partisan Supporter Typology

Partisan \ Independent	Yes	No
Yes	Independent Partisan n=146 20%	Regular Partisan n=291 40%
No	Regular Independent n=124 17%	Unattached n=167 23%

n=728

Partisan Supporter Typology

1. In your own mind, do you think of yourself as a supporter of one of the political parties or not?

2. Do you ever think of yourself as a political independent, or not?

Figure 2

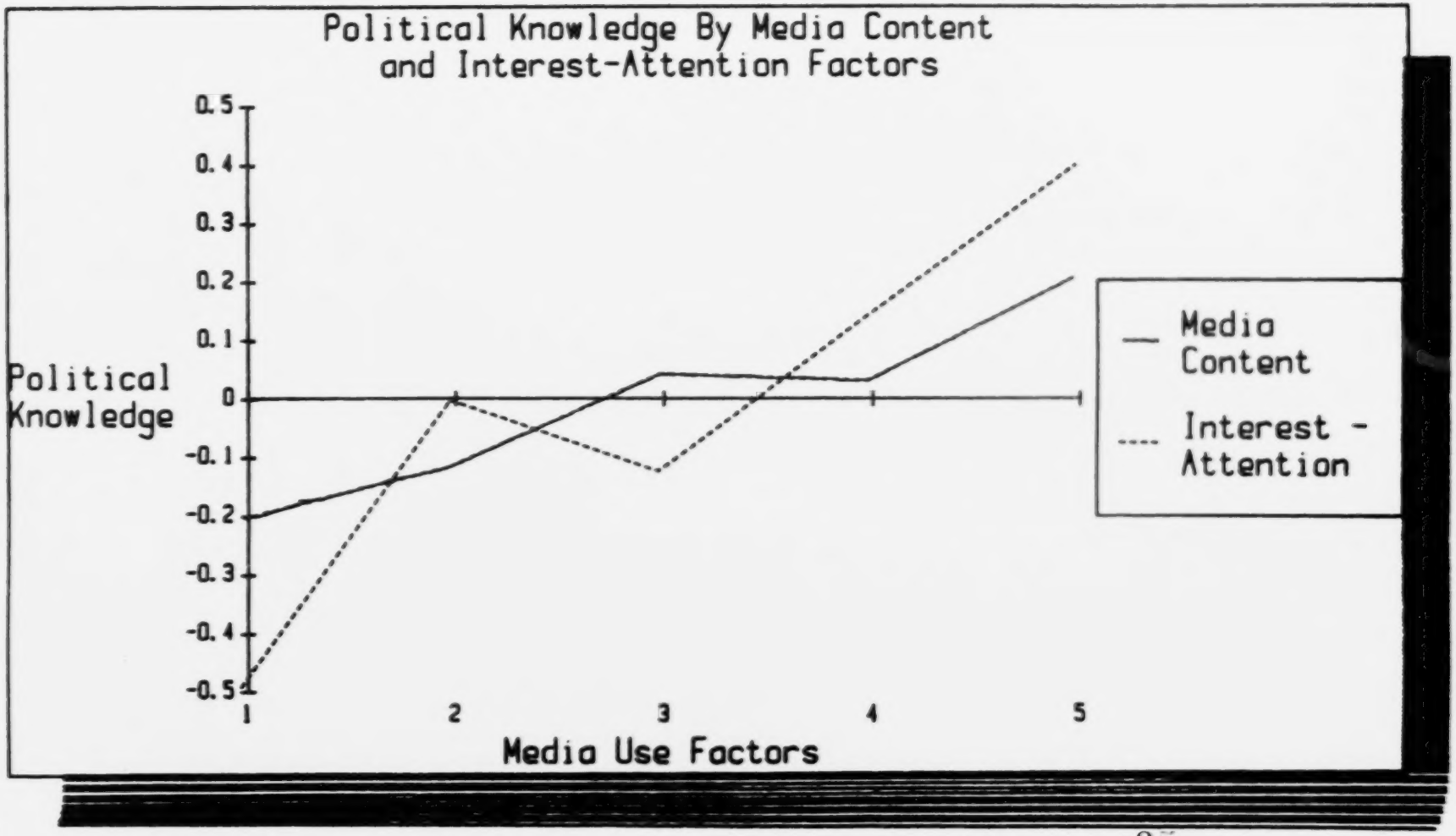
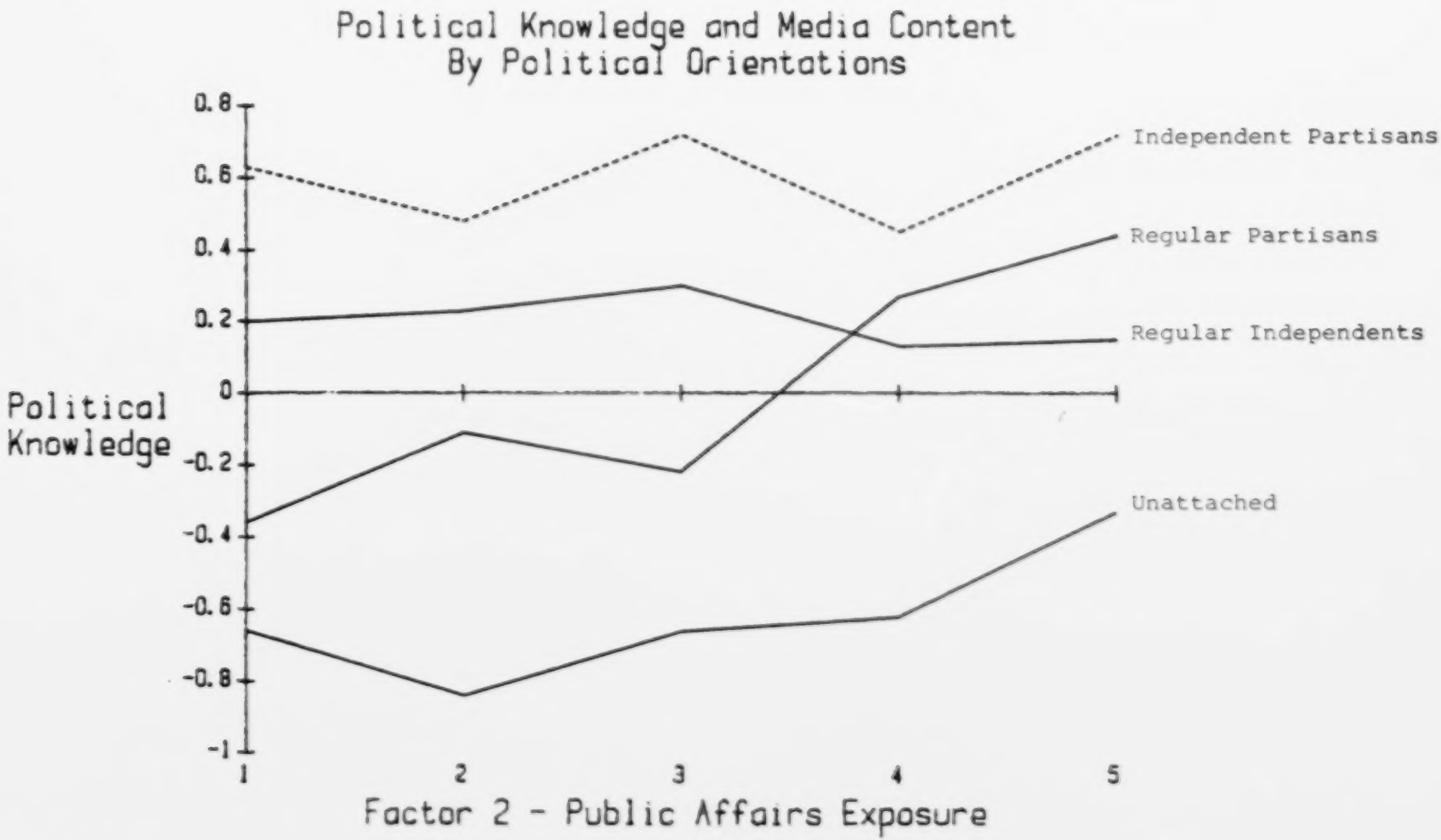

Political Knowledge By Media Content
and Interest-Attention Factors
0.5
0.4
0.3
0.2
0.1
0
-0.1
-0.2
-0.3
-0.4
-0.5
Political
Knowledge
1
2
3
4
5
Media Use Factors
Media
Content
Interest -
Attention

Figure 3


Political Knowledge and Media Content
By Political Orientations
0.8
0.6
0.4
0.2
0
-0.2
-0.4
-0.6
-0.8
-1
Political Knowledge
1
2
3
4
5
Factor 2 - Public Affairs Exposure
Independent Partisans
Regular Partisans
Regular Independents
Unattached